

she had certain rights over her husband's estate which the next kinsman had to buy up before he could enter on the property. And this he was willing to do, but he was not willing also to marry Ruth and beget on her a son who would take the name and estate of the dead and leave him out of pocket. He therefore withdraws and Boaz comes in in his place. That this is the sense of the transaction is clear; there is, however, a little obscurity in iv. 5, where one letter seems to have fallen out and we must read *וַיִּבְרַח אֶת־רֹחַל*, and translate "What day thou buyest the field from Naomi thou must also buy Ruth," &c. Comp. vv. 9, 10.

Among older commentaries special mention may be made of J. B. Carpzov, *Collegium rabbinico-biblicum in Hællum Ruth*, Lipsic, 1703. In recent times Ruth has usually been taken up by commentators along with Judges (q.v.). (W. R. S.)

**RUTHENIANS.** See **SLAVS**. For Ruthenian (Little Russian) literature, see **RUSSIA**.

**RUTHENIUM.** See **PLATINUM**.

**RUTHERFURD**, or **RUTHERFORD**, **SAMUEL** (1600-1661), Scottish divine, was born about 1600 at the village of Nisbet in Roxburghshire. He is supposed to have received his early education at Jedburgh, and he entered the university of Edinburgh in 1617. He graduated M.A. in 1621, and two years afterwards was elected professor of humanity. On account of some alleged indiscretion or irregularity connected with his marriage in 1625, he resigned his professorship in that year, but, after studying theology, he was in 1627 appointed minister of Anwoth, Kirkcudbrightshire, where he displayed remarkable diligence and zeal, alike as preacher, pastor, and student, and soon took a leading place among the clergy of Galloway. In 1636 his first book, entitled *Exercitationes de Gratia*—an elaborate treatise against Arminianism—appeared at Amsterdam, and attracted some attention both in Great Britain and on the Continent. Combined with his strict and non-conforming presbyterianism, the severe Calvinism set forth in this work led to a prosecution by the new bishop of the diocese, Sydserff, in the High Commission Court, first at Wigton and afterwards at Edinburgh, with the result that Rutherford was deposed from his pastoral office, and sentenced to confinement in Aberdeen during the king's pleasure. His banishment lasted from September 1636 to February 1638, and was chiefly remarkable for the epistolary activity he displayed, the greater number of his published *Letters* belonging to this period of his life. He was present at the signing of the Covenant in Edinburgh in 1638, and afterwards at the meeting of the Glasgow Assembly the same year, which restored him to his parish. In 1639 he was appointed professor of divinity in St Mary's College, St Andrews, and shortly afterwards became colleague to Robert Blair in the church of St Andrews. He was sent up to London in 1643 as one of the eight commissioners from Scotland to the Westminster Assembly. Arriving along with Baillie in November, and remaining at his post over three years, he did great service to the cause of his party. In 1642 he had published his *Peaceable and Temperate Plea for Paul's Presbyterie in Scotland*, and the sequel to it in 1644 on *The Due Right of Presbyteries* provoked Milton's contemptuous reference to "mere A. S. and Rutherford" in his sonnet *On the New Forcers of Conscience under the Long Parliament*. In 1644 also appeared Rutherford's *Lex Rex, a Dispute for the Just Prerogative of King and People*, which gives him a recognized place among the early writers on constitutional law; it was followed by *The Divine Right of Church Government* (1646), and *Free Disputation against Pretended Liberty of Conscience* (1649). Among his other works are the *Tryal and Triumph of Faith* (1645), *Christ Dying and Drawing Sinners to Himself* (1647), and *Survey of the Spiritual Antichrist* (1648). In 1647 he returned to St Andrews to become principal of the New College there, and in 1648 and 1651 he declined successive invitations to theological chairs at Harderwijk and Utrecht. His last days were assailed by the persecution which followed the

Restoration in 1660. His *Lex Rex* was ordered to be burned at the cross of Edinburgh, and also at the gate of the college. He was deprived of all his offices, and on a charge of high treason was cited to appear before the ensuing parliament. His health, however, now utterly broke down, and knowing that he had not long to live he drew up, on 26th February 1661, a *Testimony*, which was posthumously published. He died on the 20th of the following March.

The fame of Rutherford now rests principally upon his remarkable *Letters*, on which Wodrow thus comments:—"He seems to have outdone even himself as well as everybody else in his admirable and every way singular letters, which, though jested upon by profane wits because of some familiar expressions, yet will be owned of all who have any relish of piety to contain such sublime flights of devotion and to be freighted with such massy thoughts as loudly speak a soul united to Jesus Christ in the closest embraces, and must needs at once ravish and edify every serious reader." In addition to the other works already mentioned, Rutherford published in 1651 a treatise *De Divina Providentia*, against Molinism, Socinianism, and Arminianism, of which Richard Baxter, not without justice, remarked that "as the *Letters* were the best piece so this was the worst he had ever read."

The *Letters*, to the number of 215, were first published anonymously by M' Ward, an amanuensis, at Rotterdam, in 1664. They have been frequently reprinted, the best edition (365 letters) being that by Rev. A. A. Bonar, 1848, with a sketch of his life. See also a short *Life* by Rev. Dr Andrew Thomson, 1884.

**RUTHERGLEN**, an ancient royal burgh of Lanarkshire, Scotland, is situated near the left bank of the Clyde, 2 miles south-east of Glasgow. It consists chiefly of one long wide irregular street, with narrow streets, wynds, and alleys branching from it at intervals. The parish church is situated near the centre of the town, a little distance from the tower of the old church where the treaty was made in 1297 with Edward I., by which Sir John Monteith agreed with the English to betray the Scottish hero Wallace. The most important public building is the town-hall, a handsome structure with a large square tower. In the vicinity there are extensive collieries and ironworks, and the town possesses chemical works, a paper mill, a pottery, and a shipbuilding yard. The corporation consists of a provost, two bailies, a dean of guild, a treasurer, and fifteen councillors. The population of the royal burgh in 1871 was 9239, and in 1881 it was 11,473.

Rutherglen was erected into a royal burgh by King David in 1226. At this time it included a portion of Glasgow, but in 1226 the boundaries were rectified so as to exclude the whole of that city. In early times it had a castle, which was taken by Bruce from the English in 1313. It was kept in good repair till after the battle of Langside it was burnt by order of the regent Murray. After this the town for a time gradually decayed, the trade being absorbed by Glasgow. Rutherglen is included in the Kilmarnock district of parliamentary burghs.

**RUTILIUS CLAUDIUS NAMATIUS** is known to us as the author of a Latin poem in elegiac metre, describing a coast voyage from Rome to Gaul in 416 A.D. The literary excellence of the work and the flashes of light which it throws across a momentous but dark epoch of history combine to give it exceptional importance among the relics of late Roman literature. The poem was in two books; the exordium of the first and the greater part of the second have been lost. What remains consists of about 700 lines.

The poet's voyage took place in the late autumn of 416 (i. 135 sq.), and the verses as we have them were evidently written at or very near the time. The author is a native of southern Gaul, and belonged, like Sidonius, to one of the great governing families of the Gaulish provinces. His father, whom he calls Lachanius, had held high offices in Italy and at the imperial court, had been governor of Etruria and Umbria (*consularis Tusciæ*) probably in 389, when a Claudius is named in the Theodosian Code (2, 4, 5) as having held the office, then imperial treasurer (*comes sacrarum largitionum*), imperial recorder (*quaestor*), and governor of the capital itself (*praefectus*

*urbis*). Rutilius boasts his career to have been no less distinguished than his father's, and particularly indicates that he had been secretary of state (*magister officiorum*) and governor of the capital (i. 157, 427, 467, 561). It is probable that a certain Namatius named in the Theodosian Code (6, 27, 15) as *magister officiorum* of the year 412 is no other than our poet. The true literary man is apt to be inordinately proud of political distinction, and Rutilius celebrates his own praises in a style worthy of Cicero or Pliny. At all events, he had lived long in the great world of the Western empire, and knew much of the inner history of his time. After reaching manhood, he had passed through the tempestuous period that stretches between the death of Theodosius (395) and the fall of the usurper Attalus, which occurred near the date when our poem was written. He had witnessed the chequered career of Stilicho as actual, though not titular, emperor of the West; he had seen the hosts of Radagaisus rolled back from Italy, only to sweep over the helpless provinces of Gaul and Spain, the defeats and triumphs of Alaric, the three sieges and final sack of Rome, followed by the marvellous recovery of the city, Heraclian's vast armament dissipated by a breath, and the fall of seven pretenders to the Western diadem. Undoubtedly the sympathies of Rutilius were with those who during this period dissented from, and, when they could, opposed, the general tendencies of the imperial policy. We know from himself that he was the intimate of distinguished men who belonged to the circle of the great orator Symmachus,—men who had scouted Stilicho's compact with the Goths, and had led the Roman senate to support the pretenders Eugenius and Attalus in the vain hope of reinstating the gods whom Julian had failed to save.

While making but few direct assertions about historical characters or events, the poem, by its very texture and spirit and assumptions, forces on us important conclusions concerning the politics and religion of the time, which are not brought home to us with the same directness by any other authority. The attitude of the writer towards paganism is remarkable. The whole poem is intensely pagan, and is penetrated by the feeling that the world of literature and culture is and must remain pagan, that outside paganism lies a realm of barbarism. The poet wears an air of exalted superiority over the religious innovators of his day, and entertains a buoyant confidence that the future of the ancient gods of Rome will not belie their glorious past. Invective and apology he scorns alike, nor troubles himself to show, with Claudian, even a suppressed grief at the indignities put upon the old religion by the new. As a statesman, he is at pains to avoid offending those politic Christian senators over whom pride in their country had at least as great power as attachment to their new religion. Only once or twice does Rutilius speak directly of Christianity, and then only to attack the monks, whom the temporal authorities had hardly as yet recognized, and whom, indeed, only a short time before, a Christian emperor had forced by thousands into the ranks of his army. Judaism Rutilius could assail without wounding either pagans or Christians, but he intimates, not obscurely, that he hates it chiefly as the evil root whence the rank plant of Christianity had sprung.

We read in Gibbon that "Honorius excluded all persons who were adverse to the catholic church from holding any office in the state," that he "obstinately rejected the service of all those who dissented from his religion," and that "the law was applied in the utmost latitude and rigorously executed." Far different is the picture of political life impressed upon us by Rutilius. His voice is assuredly not that of a partisan of a discredited and overborne faction. We see by the aid of his poem a senate at Rome composed of past office-holders, the majority of whom were certainly pagan still. We discern a Christian section whose Christianity was political rather than religious, who were Romans first and Christians afterwards, whom a new breeze in politics might easily have wafted back to the old religion. Between these two sections the broad old Roman toleration reigns. Some ecclesiastical historians have fondly imagined that after the sack of Rome the bishop Innocent returned to a position of practical predominance. No one who fairly reads Rutilius can cherish this idea. The air of the capital, perhaps even of Italy, was still charged with paganism. The court was far in advance of the people, and the persecuting laws were in large part incapable of execution.

Perhaps the most interesting lines in the whole poem are those in which Rutilius assails the memory of "dire Stilicho," as he names him. Stilicho, "fearing to suffer all that had caused himself to be feared," annihilated those defences of Alps and Apennines which the provident gods had interposed between the barbarians and the Eternal City, and planted the cruel Goths, his "skin-clad" minions, in the very sanctuary of the empire. His wife was wickeder than the wife of the Trojan horse, than the wife of Althæa or of Scylla. May Nero rest from all the torments of the damned, that they may seize on Stilicho, for Nero smote his own mother, but Stilicho, the mother of the world!

We shall not err in supposing that we have here (what we find nowhere else) an authentic expression of the feeling entertained by a majority of the Roman senate concerning Stilicho. He had but imitated the policy of Theodosius with regard to the barbarians; but even that great emperor had met with passive opposition from the old Roman families. The relations, however, between Alaric and Stilicho had been closer and more mysterious than those between Alaric and Theodosius, and men who had seen Stilicho surrounded by his bodyguard of Goths not unnaturally looked on the Goths who assailed Rome as Stilicho's avengers. It is noteworthy that Rutilius speaks of the crime of Stilicho in terms far different from those used by Orosius and the historians of the lower empire. They believed that Stilicho was plotting to make his son emperor, and that he called in the Goths in order to climb higher. Rutilius holds that he used the barbarians merely to save himself from impending ruin. The Christian historians assert that Stilicho designed to restore paganism. To Rutilius he is the most uncompromising foe of paganism. His crowning sin (recorded by our poet alone) was the destruction of the Sibylline books—a sin worthy of one who had decked his wife in the spoils of Victory, the goddess who had for centuries presided over the deliberations of the senate. This crime of Stilicho alone is sufficient in the eyes of Rutilius to account for the disasters that afterwards befell the city, just as Merobaudes, a generation or two later, traced the miseries of his own day to the overthrow of the ancient rites of Vesta.

With regard to the form of the poem, Rutilius handles the elegiac couplet with great metrical purity and freedom, and betrays many signs of long study in the elegiac poetry of the Augustan era. The Latin is unusually clean for the times, and is generally fairly classical both in vocabulary and construction. The taste of Rutilius too is comparatively pure. If he lacks the genius of Claudian, he also lacks his overloaded gaudiness and his large exaggeration, and the directness of Rutilius shines by comparison with the laboured complexity of Ausonius. It is common to call Claudian the last of the Roman poets. That title might fairly be claimed for Rutilius, unless it be reserved for Merobaudes. At any rate in passing from Rutilius to Sidonius no reader can fail to feel that he has left the region of Latin poetry for the region of Latin verse.

Of the many interesting details of the poem we can only mention a few. At the outset we have an almost dithyrambic address to the goddess Roma, whose glory has ever shone the brighter for disaster, and who will rise once more in her might and confound her barbarian foes. The poet shows as deep a consciousness as any modern historian that the grandest achievement of Rome was the modern historian that the grandest achievement of Rome was the modern spread of law. Next we get incidental but not unimportant references to the destruction of roads and property wrought by the Goths, to the state of the havens at the mouths of the Tiber and the general decay of nearly all the old commercial ports on the coast. Most of these were as desolate then as now. Rutilius even exaggerates the desolation of the once important city of Cosa in Etruria, whose walls have scarcely changed from that day to ours. The port that served Pisa, almost alone of all those visited by Rutilius, seems to have retained its prosperity, and to have foreshadowed the subsequent greatness of that city. At one point on the coast the villagers everywhere were "soothing their wearied hearts with holy merriment," and were celebrating the festival of Osiris.

All existing MSS. of Rutilius are later than 1494, and are copies from a lost copy of an ancient MS. once at the monastery of Bobio, which disappeared about 1700. The *editio princeps* is that by J. B. Pius (Bologna, 1520), and the principal editions since have been those by Barth (1623), P. Burman (1731, in his edition of the minor Latin poets), Wernsdorf (1778, part of a similar collection), Zumpt (1840), and the critical edition by Lucian Müller (Teubner, Leipzig, 1870). Müller writes the poet's name as Claudius Rutilius Namatius, instead of the usual Rutilius Claudius Namatius; but if the identification of the poet's father with the Claudius mentioned in the Theodosian Code be correct, Müller is probably wrong. Rutilius receives more or less attention from all writers on the history or literature of the times, but a lucid chapter in Bengnot, *Histoire de la Destruction du Paganisme en Occident* (1835), may be especially mentioned. It should be noted that in using the passage concerning Stilicho we have ventured to read the line at l. 45 thus—*Itacæ cladis deteriore dolo*; the change from the MSS. reading *Itacæ cladis liberiore dolo* (preserved in all editions) seems demanded by the context, as well as by the sense. (J. S. K.)

**RUTLAND**, the smallest county in England, is bounded N. and N.E. by Lincolnshire, S.E. by Northamptonshire, and W. by Leicestershire. Its shape is extremely irregular. The greatest length from north-east to south-west is about

20 miles, and the greatest breadth from east to west about 16 miles. The area is 94,889 acres, or about 148 square miles. The surface is pleasantly undulating, ridges of high ground running east and west, separated by rich and luxuriant valleys, generally about half a mile in breadth. The principal valley is that of Catmoss to the south of Oakham, having to the north of it a tract of table-land commanding an extensive prospect into Leicestershire.

The Welland, which is navigable to Stamford, flows north-east, forming the greater part of the boundary of the county with Northamptonshire. The Gwash or Wash, which rises in Leicestershire, flows eastwards through the centre of the county, and just beyond its borders, enters the Welland in Lincolnshire. The Chater, also rising in Leicestershire and flowing eastwards enters the Welland about two miles from Stamford. The Eye flows south-eastwards along the borders of Leicestershire. The county belongs almost entirely to the Jurassic formation, consisting of Liassic and Oolitic strata—the harder strata, chiefly limestone containing iron, forming the hills and escarpments, and the clay-beds the slopes of the valleys. The oldest rocks are those belonging to the Lower Lias in the north-west. The bottom of the vale of Catmoss is formed of marlstone rock belonging to the Middle Lias, and its sides are composed of long slopes of Upper Lias clay. The Upper Lias also covers a large area in the west of the county. The lowest series of the Oolitic formation is the Northampton sands bordering Northamptonshire. The Lincolnshire Oolitic limestone prevails in the east of the county north of Stamford. It is largely quarried for building purposes, the quarry at Ketton being famous beyond the boundaries of the county. The Great Oolite prevails towards the south-east. Formerly the iron was largely dug and smelted by means of the wood in the extensive forests, and the industry is again reviving.

**Agriculture.**—In the eastern and south-eastern districts the soil is light and shallow. In the other districts it consists chiefly of a tenacious but fertile loam, and in the fertile vale of Catmoss the soil is either clay or loam, or a mixture of the two. The prevailing redness, which colours even the streams, is owing to the ferruginous limestone carried down from the slopes of the hills. The name of the county is by some authorities derived from this characteristic of the soil, but the explanation is doubtful. The eastern portions of the county are chiefly under tillage and the western in grass. Out of 94,889 acres no fewer than 86,477 acres in 1885 were under cultivation, corn crops occupying 22,820 acres, green crops 7520 acres, rotation grasses 6553 acres, and permanent pasture 47,816 acres. Over 3000 acres were under woodland. The principal corn crop is barley, which occupied 9484 acres, but wheat and oats are also largely grown. Turnips and swedes occupy about five-sixths of the area under green crops. The rearing of sheep and cattle occupies the chief attention of the farmer. Large quantities of cheese are manufactured and sold as Stilton. Cattle, principally shorthorns, numbered 19,810, of which 3054 were cows and heifers in milk and in calf. Sheep—Leicesters and South Downs—numbered 80,881, horses 3062, pigs 3054, and poultry 27,376. According to the parliamentary return of 1873 the number of proprietors was 1425, of whom 861 possessed less than one acre. The largest proprietors were the earl of Gainsborough 15,076, Lord Aveland 13,634, marquis of Exeter 10,713, and George H. Finch 9182.

**Railways.**—The main line of the Great Northern intersects the north-eastern corner of the county, and branches of that system, of the London and North-Western, and of the Midland connect it with all parts of the country.

**Administration and Population.**—Rutland comprises five hundreds and contains fifty-seven civil parishes, and part of the parish of Stoke-Dry, which extends into Leicestershire. Formerly represented by two members of parliament, since 1885 it returns one only. There is no municipal or parliamentary borough. The county has one court of quarter sessions, but is not subdivided for petty sessional purposes. Ecclesiastically it is entirely in the diocese of Peterborough. The population was 21,861 in 1861, 22,073 in 1871, and 21,434 in 1881. The average number of persons to an acre in 1881 was 0.23, and of acres to a person 4.43.

**History and Antiquities.**—In the time of the Romans the district now included in Rutlandshire was probably inhabited by the Coritani, and was included in Flavia Caesariensis. Ermyn

Street traversed it in the north-east, and there was an important station at Great Casterton. As a shire it is later than Domesday, when a portion of it was included in Northamptonshire but the greater part in Nottingham. It is referred to as com. Roteland in the fifth year of King John, in the document assigning a dowry to Queen Isabella, but for a long time previous to this the name Roteland was applied to Oakham and the country round it. Edward, eldest son of Edmund of Langley, fifth son of Edward III., was created earl of Rutland, but the title became extinct in the royal house when Edward earl of Rutland was stabbed to death at the battle of Cliford. In 1525 the title was revived in the person of Lord Ros, and the tenth earl was created duke in 1703. At the battle of Stamford in 1470 Lancaster was defeated by Edward IV. The only old castle of which there are important remains is Oakham; dating from the time of Henry II., and remarkable for its Norman hall.

**RUTLAND**, a township and village of the United States, capital of Rutland county, Vermont, 117 miles north-north-west of Boston. It is an important railway junction, being the terminus of several minor lines and the seat of machine-shops and engine-houses; but its name is even better known through its quarries of white marble. The population of the township was 12,149 and that of the village 7502 in 1880.

Chartered by New Hampshire in 1761 and again chartered as Socialborough in 1772 by New York, Rutland became in 1775 a fortified post on the great northern military road, and in 1781 was made the chief town of Rutland county. Between 1784 and 1804 it was one of the capitals of the State.

**RUYSBROECK**, or **RUYSBROEK**, JOHN, mystic, was born at Ruysbroek, near Brussels, about 1293, and died as first prior of the convent of Groenendaal, near Waterloo, in 1381. See **MYSTICISM**, vol. xvii. p. 133.

**RUYSCH**, **FREDERIK** (1638–1731), anatomist, was born at The Hague in 1638, and died at Amsterdam on February 22, 1731. See **ANATOMY**, vol. i. p. 812.

**RUYSDAEL**, or **RUISDAAL**, **JACOB** (c. 1625–1682), the most celebrated of the Dutch landscapists, was born at Haarlem about 1625. The accounts of his life are very conflicting, and recent criticism and research have discredited much that was previously received as fact regarding his career. He appears to have studied under his father Izaak Ruysdael, a landscape-painter, though other authorities make him the pupil of Berghem and of Albert van Everdingen. The earliest date that appears on his paintings and etchings is 1645. Three years later he was admitted a member of the guild of St Luke in Haarlem; in 1659 he obtained the freedom of the city of Amsterdam, and we know that he was resident there in 1668, for in that year his name appears as a witness to the marriage of Hobbema. During his lifetime his works were little appreciated, and he seems to have suffered from poverty. In 1681 the sect of the Mennonites, with whom he was connected, petitioned the council of Haarlem for his admission into the almshouse of the town, and there the artist died on the 14th of March 1682.

The works of Ruysdael may be studied in the Louvre and the National Gallery, London, and in the collections at The Hague, Amsterdam, Berlin, and Dresden. His favourite subjects are simple woodland scenes, similar to those of Everdingen and Hobbema, or views of picturesque mills and cottages, or of ruined towers and temples, set upon broken ground, beside streams or waterfalls. He is especially noted as a painter of trees, and his rendering of foliage, particularly of oak leafage, is characterized by the greatest spirit and precision. His views of distant cities, such as that of Haarlem in the possession of the marquis of Bute, and that of Katwijk in the Glasgow Corporation Galleries, clearly indicate the influence of Rembrandt. He frequently paints coast-scenes, and sea-pieces with breaking waves and stormy skies filled with wind-driven clouds, but it is in his rendering of lonely forest glades that we find him at his best. The subjects of certain of his mountain scenes, with bold rocks, waterfalls, and fir-trees, seem to be taken from Norway, and have led to the supposition that he had travelled in that country. We have, however, no record of such a journey, and the works in question are probably merely adaptations from the landscapes of Van Everdingen, whose manner he copied at one period. Only a single architectural sub-

ject from his brush is known—an admirable interior of the New Church, Amsterdam, in the possession of the marquis of Bute. The prevailing hue of his landscapes is a full rich green, which, however, has darkened with time, while a clear grey tone is characteristic of his sea-pieces.

The art of Ruysdael, while it shows little of the scientific knowledge of later landscapists, is sensitive and poetic in sentiment, and direct and skilful in technique. Figures are sparingly introduced into his compositions, and such as occur are believed to be from the pencils of Adrian Vanderveelde, Philip Wouwerman, and Jan Lingelbach. In his love of landscape for itself, in his delight in the quiet and solitude of nature, the painter is thoroughly modern in feeling. Ruysdael etched a few plates, which were reproduced by Amand Durand in 1878, with text by M. Georges Duplessis. The "Champ de Blé" and the "Voyageurs" are characterized by M. Duplessis as "estampes de haute valeur qui peuvent être regardées comme les spécimens les plus significatifs de l'art du paysagiste dans les Pays-Bas."

**RUYSSELEDE**, or **RUISSELEDE**, a market-town of Belgium, in the province of West Flanders, 15 miles south-east of Bruges. It is best known as the seat of a great reformatory for boys, founded by the Government in 1849. The population was 6663 in 1874, and 6670 in 1881.

**RUÿTER**, **MICHAEL ADRIAN DE** (1607–1676), a distinguished Dutch naval officer, was born at Flushing, 24th March 1607. He began his seafaring life at the age of eleven as a cabin boy, and in 1636 was entrusted by the merchants of Flushing with the command of a cruiser against the French pirates. In 1640 he entered the service of the States, and, being appointed rear-admiral of a fleet fitted out to assist Portugal against Spain, specially distinguished himself at Cape St Vincent, 3d November 1641. In the following year he left the service of the States, and, until the outbreak of war with England in 1652, held command of a merchant vessel. In 1653 a squadron of seventy vessels was despatched against the English, under the command of Admiral Tromp. Ruÿter, who accompanied the admiral in this expedition, seconded him with great skill and bravery in the three battles which were fought with the English. He was afterwards stationed in the Mediterranean, where he captured several Turkish vessels. In 1659 he received a commission to join the king of Denmark in his war with the Swedes. As a reward of his services, the king of Denmark ennobled him and gave him a pension. In 1661 he grounded a vessel belonging to Tunis, released forty Christian slaves, made a treaty with the Tunisians, and reduced the Algerine corsairs to submission. From his achievements on the west coast of Africa he was recalled in 1665 to take command of a large fleet which had been organized against England, and in May of the following year, after a long contest off the North Foreland, he compelled the English to take refuge in the Thames. On June 7, 1672, he fought a drawn battle with the combined fleets of England and France, in Southwold or Sole Bay, and after the fight he convoyed safely home a fleet of merchantmen. His valour was displayed to equal advantage in several engagements with the French and English in the following year. In 1676 he was despatched to the assistance of Spain against France in the Mediterranean, and, receiving a mortal wound in the battle on the 21st April off Messina, died on the 29th at Syracuse. A patent by the king of Spain, investing him with the dignity of duke, did not reach the fleet till after his death. His body was carried to Amsterdam, where a magnificent monument to his memory was erected by command of the states-general.

See *Life of Ruÿter* by Brandt, Amsterdam, 1687, and by Klopp, 2d ed., Hanover, 1858.

**RYAZAN**, a government of Central Russia, is bounded by Moscow and Tula on the W., by Vladimir on the N., and by Tamboff on the E. and S., with an area of 16,255 square miles, and a population of 1,713,581 in 1882.

Ryazan is an intermediate link between the central Great Russian governments and the Steppe governments of the south-east,—the wide and deep valley of the Oka, by which it is traversed from west to east, with a broad curve to the south, being the natural boundary between the two. On the left of the Oka the surface often consists of sands, marshes, and forests; while on the right the fertile black-earth prairies begin, occupying especially the southern part of the government (the districts of Ranenburg, Sapojok, and Dankoff). The whole of Ryazan is a plateau about 700 feet above the sea, but deeply cut by the river valleys and numerous ravines. The geological formations represented are the Devonian, the Carboniferous, the Jurassic, and the Quaternary. The Devonian appears in the deeper valleys in the south, and belongs to the well-known "Malevka-Muraevnya horizon," now considered as equivalent to the *Cypridina serrato-striata* Upper Devonian deposits of the Eifel. The Carboniferous deposits are widely spread, and appear at the surface in the bottoms of the ravines and valleys. They contain strata of excellent coal between plastic blue clays, which are worked at several places. Upper Carboniferous limestones, as also sandstones, the age of which has not yet been determined, but which seem to be Lower Jurassic, cover the Carboniferous clays. The Upper Jurassic deposits are widely spread, but they have been much destroyed and now appear as separate insular tracts. They belong to the Oxford and Callovian horizons, the former containing corals, which are very rare on the whole in the Russian Jurassic deposits. The Quaternary deposits are represented by the Glacial boulder clay and more recent alluvial deposits, which occupy wide areas in the valley of the Oka. Iron-ores, limestone, grindstone grits, potters' clays, and thick beds of peat are worked, besides coal. The northern parts of Ryazan belong to the forest regions of Russia, and, notwithstanding the wholesale destruction of forests in that part of the country, these (chiefly Coniferous) still cover one-third of the surface in several districts. In the south, where the proximity of the Steppes is felt, they are much less extensive, the prevailing species being oak, birch, and other deciduous trees. They cover an aggregate area of more than 2 million acres.

The Oka is the chief river; it is navigable throughout, and receives the navigable Pronya, Pra, and Tsna, besides a great many smaller streams utilized for floating timber. Steamers ply on the Oka to Kasimoff and Nijni Novgorod. The Don and the Lyesnoi Voronezh belong to Ryazan in their upper courses only. On the whole, the south districts are not well watered. Small lakes are numerous in the broad depression of the Oka and elsewhere, while extensive marshes cover the north-east districts; a few attempts at draining several of these on the banks of the Oka have resulted in the reclamation of excellent pasture lands. The climate is a little warmer than at Moscow, the average temperature at Ryazan being 41°.

The territory of Ryazan was occupied in the 9th century by Finnish stems (Mordvinians, Mers, Muroma, and Meschers), which for the most part have either given way before or disappeared amongst the Slavonian colonizers. The population is now Great Russian throughout, and contains only a trifling admixture of some 6000 Tartars, 1500 Poles, and 500 Jews in towns. Some Tartars immigrated into the Kasimoff region in the 15th century, and are noted for their honesty of character as well as for their agricultural prosperity. The people of the Pra river are described as Mescheriaks, but their manners and customs do not differ from those of the Russians.

The chief occupation in Ryazan is agriculture. Out of 10,100,000 acres only 838,000 are unfit for tillage. 5,482,000 acres are under crops, and the annual produce is estimated at about 4,948,000

quarters of corn and 972,000 quarters of potatoes. The area under cultivation and the crops themselves are increasing, as also is the export of corn. But even here, in one of the wealthiest governments of Russia, the situation of the peasants is far from satisfactory. Cattle-breeding is rapidly falling off on account of want of pasture lands, but hay, which is abundant, especially on the rich meadow lands of the Oka, is exported. In 1882 there were 283,500 horses, 262,200 cattle, and 839,600 sheep, the figures having been 446,000, 297,000, and 847,000 respectively in 1853. In the northern part of the government various industries are carried on, such as boatbuilding, the preparation of pitch and tar, the manufacture of wooden vessels, sledges, &c. Various other petty trades, such as weaving, lace-making, and boot-making, are combined with agriculture. Manufactures also have lately begun to make progress, and in 1882 their aggregate production reached 13,000,000 roubles (cotton and flax-spinning mills, glass-works and metal-ware works, and distilleries, the last-named producing to the value of 1,850,000 roubles). Trade, especially in corn and other agricultural produce and in merchandise manufactured in the villages, is very active. The railway from Ryazan to Moscow is one of the most important in Russia, from the amount of goods carried from the south-east Steppe governments. The Oka is another artery of traffic, the aggregate amount shipped to or sent from its ports within Ryazan reaching 3,634,000 cwts. in 1880. The government is divided into twelve districts, the chief towns of which, with their populations in 1883, are subjoined: Ryazan (80,325 inhabitants), Dankoff (2475), Egorievsk (6055), Kasimoff (15,260), Mikhailoff (2720), Fronsok (1740), Ranenburg (4500), Ryazhsk (4265), Sapojok (2670), Skopin (10,260), Spassk (4320), and Zaisk (5870). Ranenburg, Skopin, and Zaisk are important markets for corn and hemp. Several villages, such as Muraevnaya, Dyednuovo (6600) and Lovtsy (loading places on the Oka), and Ukolovo (market for corn), have more commerce and industry than the district towns. Large villages are numerous, about sixty having each from 2500 to 7000 inhabitants.

The Slavonians began to colonize the region of Ryazan as early as the 9th century, penetrating thither both from the north-west (Great Russians) and from the Dnieper (Little Russians). As early as the 10th century the principality of Marom and Ryazan is mentioned in the chronicles. During the following centuries this principality increased both in extent and in wealth and included parts of what are now the governments of Kaluga and Moscow. Owing to the fertility of the soil, its Russian population rapidly increased, while the Finnish stems which formerly inhabited it migrated farther east, or became merged among the Slavonians. A dozen towns, all fortified and commercial, are mentioned as belonging to the principality towards the end of the 12th century. The Mongolian invasion stopped all this development. The horsemen of Batu burned and destroyed several towns in 1237, and killed many people, desolating the country. The principality, however, still continued to exist; its great princes strongly opposed the annexation plans of Moscow, making alliance with the Mongols and with Lithuania, but they succumbed, and, the last of them, Ivan, having been imprisoned in Moscow, his principality was definitively annexed in 1517.

RYAZAN, capital of the above government, lies 119 miles to the south-east of Moscow, on the elevated right bank of the Trubej, a mile above its junction with the Oka. A wide prairie dotted with large villages, being the bottom of a former lake, spreads out from the base of the crag on which Ryazan stands, and has the aspect of an immense lake when it is inundated in the spring. Except one or two streets, the town is badly built, chiefly of wood, and ill-paved. It has often suffered from fire, and has few remains of former days. The large church of Uspensk dates from 1770. Those of Arkhangelsk and Krestovozdvijensk have preserved, however, their old architecture, though obliterated to some extent by subsequent repairs, as also the archiepiscopal palace, formerly the "terem" of the great princes. The industries are undeveloped, and the trade has less importance than might be expected from the position of the town in so rich a region. It is, however, an important railway centre, no less than 15,000,000 cwts., chiefly of corn, being brought from the south-east and sent on to Moscow, while nearly 3,390,000 cwts. of various manufactured and grocery wares are conveyed in the opposite direction. The loading place on the Oka also has some importance. The population, 30,325 in 1883, is increasing but slowly.

The capital of Ryazan principality was Ryazan—now Old Ryazan, a village close to Spassk, also on the Oka. It is mentioned in

annals as early as 1097, but continued to be the chief town of the principality only until the 14th century. In the 11th century one of the Kieff princes—probably Yaroslav Svyatoslavitch in 1095—founded, on the banks of a small lake, a fort which received the name of Pereyaslaw-Ryazanskiy. In 1294 (or in 1335) the bishop of Marom, compelled to leave his own town and probably following the usual policy of that epoch,—that of selecting a new town with no municipal traditions, as the nucleus of a new state,—settled in Pereyaslaw-Ryazanskiy, and thus gave new importance to this formerly insignificant settlement. The great princes of Ryazan followed his example and by-and-by completely abandoned the old republican town of Ryazan, transferring also its name to Pereyaslaw-Ryazanskiy. In 1300 a congress of Russian princes was held there, and in the following year the town was taken by the Moscow prince. It continued, however, to be the residence of the Ryazan princes until 1517. In 1365 and 1377 it was plundered and burned by Tartars, but in the two following centuries (in 1460, 1513, 1521, and 1564) it was strong enough to repel them. Earthen walls with towers were erected after 1301; and in the 17th century a "kreml" still stood on the high crag above the Trubej. Ryazan became chief town of the Ryazan lieutenancy in 1778.

RYBINSK, or RUBINSK, though but a district town of the government of Yaroslavl, with a permanent population (1883) of only 18,900, is, as being virtually the port of St Petersburg on the Volga, one of the most important towns of the northern part of Central Russia. It lies 54 miles to the north-west of Yaroslavl, and is connected by rail (186 miles) with Bologoye, on the line between St Petersburg and Moscow. It derives its importance from its situation on the Volga, opposite the mouth of the Sheksna,—one of those tributaries which, flowing from the north-west, have since the dawn of Russian history connected the Volga with the regions around Lake Ladoga. Russians settled there as early as the 12th century, or perhaps earlier; subsequently it seems to have become a mere fishing station under Moscow, with perhaps some shipbuilding. It became a considerable centre for traffic when the Vyshnevolotsk, Tikhvinsk, and Mariinsk canal systems, connecting St Petersburg with the Volga, were opened. The cargoes of the larger boats from the lower Volga, consisting mainly of corn and flour, as also of salt, spirits, potash, and tallow, are here transferred to smaller boats capable of accomplishing the navigation to St Petersburg, and *vice versa*. The amount of goods thus transhipped is estimated at 16,000,000 cwts., worth 32,800,000 roubles. Since the opening of the line to Bologoye, a large proportion of this merchandise is sent to St Petersburg by rail (9,293,000 cwts. in 1880). The total number of boats visiting Rybinsk annually is estimated at 5000 to 7000, their aggregate cargoes amounting to nearly 20,000,000 cwts. (about 40,000,000 roubles). Upwards of 100,000 labourers (male and female) assemble at Rybinsk during the navigation, and the number of vessels is so great as to cover the Volga and the Sheksna like a bridge. Besides the business of transshipment, Rybinsk has an active trade in corn, hemp, &c., from the neighbouring districts. The town is but poorly built, and its sanitary condition leaves very much to be desired, especially in summer.

RYCAUT, or RICAUT, SIR PAUL (d. 1700), traveller and diplomatist, was the tenth son of Sir Peter Ricaut, a Royalist who on account of his support of King Charles had to pay a composition of £1500. The son was admitted a scholar of Trinity College, Cambridge, in 1647, and took his B.A. degree in 1650. After travelling in Europe and in various parts of Asia and Africa, he in 1661 accompanied as secretary the earl of Winchelsea, ambassador extraordinary to Turkey. During a residence there of eight years he wrote *The Present State of the Ottoman Empire, in three books, containing the Maxims of the Turkish Politie, their Religion and Military Discipline* (1670; 4th ed., 1686; Fr. transl. by Briot, 1670; and another with notes by Bespier, 1677). In 1663 he pub-

lished at Constantinople *The Capitulation, Articles of Peace, &c., concluded between the King of England and the Sultan of the Ottoman Empire*. Subsequently he was for eleven years consul at Smyrna, and at the command of Charles II. wrote *The Present State of the Greek and Armenian Churches, Anno Christi 1678*, which on his return to England he presented to the king and published in 1679. In 1685 Lord Clarendon, lord lieutenant of Ireland, made him principal secretary for the provinces of Leinster and Connaught. He at the same time received from James II. the honour of knighthood, was made a member of the privy council of Ireland, and named judge of the high court of admiralty, which office he retained till 1688. From 1690 to 1700 he was employed by King William as English resident at the Hanse towns, and shortly after his return to England, worn out with age and infirmities, he died on the 16th December 1700.

Rycaut was a fellow of the Royal Society, and wrote an article on Sable Mice which was published in their *Transactions*. In addition to the works already mentioned he was the author of *A Continuation of Knolles' History of the Turks from 1623 to 1677* (1680), and from 1679 to 1699 (1700); *A Translation of Platina's Lives of the Popes, with a Continuation from 1471 to the Present Time* (1685); *The Critick, from the Spanish of Gracian* (1686); and the *Royal Commentaries of Peru, from the Spanish of Garcilasso* (1688).

RYDE, a municipal borough and watering place of the Isle of Wight, is finely situated on a sloping eminence above the Solent, 5 miles south by west of Portsmouth, and 7 (12 by rail) from West Cowes. It occupies the site of a village called La Rye or La Riche, which was destroyed by the French in the reign of Edward II. About the close of the 18th century it was a small fishing hamlet, but when the beauty of its site attracted attention it rapidly grew into favour as a watering-place. The streets are wide, regular, and well-paved, and there are a large number of fine villas on the slopes of the hill. It is connected by rail with the principal other towns in the island, and there is also steamboat communication with Portsmouth, Southampton, Southsea, Portsea, and Stoke's Bay. The pier, built originally in 1812, but since then greatly extended, forms a delightful promenade half a mile in length. The principal buildings are All Saints church, erected in 1870 from the designs of Sir Gilbert Scott, and other churches, the market-house and town hall, the Royal Victoria Yacht club-house, the theatre, and the Royal Isle of Wight Infirmary. The town was incorporated in 1868, and is governed by a mayor, six aldermen, and eighteen councillors. The population of the municipal borough (area 792 acres) in 1871 was 11,260 and in 1881 it was 11,461.

RYE. As in the case of other cereals, it is doubtful if rye (*Secale cereale*) exists at the present time in a truly wild state. The best evidence on this point goes to show that the plant is a native of the regions between the Black and Caspian Seas. It is also recorded from Afghanistan and Turkestan; but botanists are very chary about admitting the validity of the evidence hitherto adduced. Aitchison, the latest investigator of the flora of Afghanistan, mentions it as growing in wheat-fields, where it is considered as a weed, not being intentionally sown. In some fields "it almost eradicates the wheat crop." But this merely shows that the conditions are more favourable to the growth of rye than to that of wheat. In spite of the uncertainty as to the precise origin of the cultivated plant, its cultivation does not appear to have been practised at a very early date, relatively speaking. Alphonse de Candolle, who has collected the evidence on this point, draws attention to the fact that no traces of this cereal have hitherto been found in Egyptian monuments or in the earlier Swiss dwellings, though seeds have been found in association with weapons of the Bronze period at

Olmütz. The absence of any special name for it in the Semitic, Chinese, and Sanskrit languages is also adduced as an indication of its comparatively recent culture. On the other hand, the general occurrence of the name in the more modern languages of northern Europe, under various modifications, points to the cultivation of the plant then, as now, in those regions. The origin of the Latin name *secale*, which exists in a modified form among the Basques and Bretons, is not explained. The circumstances that the cultivation of rye is relatively not of great antiquity and that it is confined to a relatively restricted area must be taken into account, in connexion with the fact that the variations of this cereal are much fewer than are noted in the case of other plants of like character.

The fact stated by Müller that the anthers and stigmas of the flowers come to maturity at the same time would tend to "close fertilization" and a consequent constancy of "characters" in the offspring, and, as a matter of fact, the varieties of this grass are not numerous. Rye is a tall-growing annual grass, with fibrous roots, flat, narrow, ribbon-like bluish-green leaves, and erect or decurved cylindrical slender spikes like those of barley. The spikelets contain two or three flowers, of which the uppermost is usually imperfect. The outer glumes are acute glabrous, the flowering glumes lance-shaped, with a comb-like keel at the back, and the outer or lower one prolonged at the apex into a very long bristly awn. Within these are three stamens surrounding a compressed ovary, with two feathery stigmas. When ripe, the grain is of an elongated oval form, with a few hairs at the summit.

In the southern parts of Great Britain rye is chiefly or solely cultivated as a forage-plant for cattle and horses, being usually sown in autumn for spring use, after the crop of roots, turnips, &c., is exhausted, and before the clover and lucerne are ready. For forage purposes it is best to cut early, before the leaves and haulms have been exhausted of their supplies to benefit the grain. In the northern parts of Europe, and more especially in Scandinavia, Russia, and parts of northern Germany, rye is the principal cereal; and in nutritive value, as measured by the amount of gluten it contains, it stands next to wheat, a fact which furnishes the explanation of its culture in northern latitudes ill-suited for the growth of wheat. Rye-bread or black-bread is in general use in northern Europe, but finds little favour with those unaccustomed to its use, owing to its sour taste, the sugar it contains rapidly passing into the acetous fermentation.

When the ovaries of the plant become affected with a peculiar fungus (*Cordyceps*), they become blackened and distorted, constituting ERGOT (*q.v.*).

RYE, a municipal town and seaport at the eastern extremity of the county of Sussex, 63 miles south-south-east of London, is built upon a rocky eminence which two or three centuries ago was washed on all sides by the influx of the tide, but now, in consequence of the gradual recession of the sea, lies two miles inland. It is surrounded by rich marsh land through which flows the river Rother, uniting at the south-east foot of the rock with two rivulets to form a small serpentine estuary, Rye harbour, the mouth of which is connected with the town by means of a branch line of railway. In bygone years, when the adjacent marshes were flooded with tidal water, the eflux was so powerful as to effectually maintain safe and free entrance into Rye harbour; and in the reign of Charles II. a frigate of 50 guns could enter and ride at anchor. Now the harbour suffers seriously from the shifting sand and shingle, and considerable sums of money have been expended by the harbour commissioners with the view of overcoming these impediments, with but partial success. The trade is chiefly in coal, timber,

and bark, and shipbuilding is carried on as well as fishing. There is a large market every alternate Wednesday, and considerable business in cattle, sheep, corn, wool, and hops is transacted. Rye is a quaint, compactly-built town perched upon the rock to which for centuries it was restricted, but in the course of the last half-century it has gradually extended itself over the northern slopes beyond the town wall. It is excellently drained, abundantly supplied with clear spring water, and very healthy. The church, said to be the largest parish church in England, is of very mixed architecture, chiefly Transitional, Norman, and Early English; the nave and high chancel were judiciously restored in 1882, according to designs by the late Mr G. E. Street. Of the old fortifications there still remain portions of the town wall, much hidden by newer buildings, a strong quadrangular tower built by William of Ypres, earl of Kent, and lord warden in the time of Stephen, and now forming part of the police station, and a handsome gate with a round tower on each side, known as the Sandgate, at the entrance into Rye from the London road. Rye ceased in 1885 to be a parliamentary borough, but gives its name to the eastern division of the county. The population in 1881 was 4224.

Of the early history of Rye little is known. In the mediæval French chronicles it is always mentioned as "La Rie." Having been conferred upon the abbey of Fécamp by Edward the Confessor, it was taken back by King Henry III. into his own hands, "for the better defence of his realm," and received from that sovereign the full rights and privileges of a Cinque Port under the title of "Ancient Town." In consequence of the frequent incursions of the French, by whom it was sacked and burnt three times in the 14th century, it was fortified by order of Edward III. on the landward side, the steep precipitous sides of the rock affording ample protection towards the sea. In addition to the naval services rendered by Rye as a Cinque Port under the Plantagenet and Tudor sovereigns, it was a principal port of communication with France in times of peace,—for which reason successive bands of Huguenots fled thither between 1562 and 1685, many of whom settled at Rye and have left representatives now living.

RYEZHITZA, a town of European Russia at the head of a district in the Vitebsk government, in 56° 30' N. lat. and 27° 21' E. long., 198 miles north-west from Vitebsk on the railway between St Petersburg and Warsaw, near the Ryezhitza, which falls into Lake Luban. Its population increased from 7306 (2902 Jews) in 1867 to about 9000 in 1881; but its importance is mainly historical. The cathedral is a modern building (1846).

Ryezhitza, or, as it is called in the Livonian chronicles, Roziten, was founded in 1285 by Wilhelm von Harburg to keep in subjection the Lithuanians and Letts. The castle was continually the object of hostile attacks. In 1559 the Livonian order, exhausted by the war with Russia, gave it in pawn to Poland, and though it was captured by the Russians in 1567 and 1577, and had its fortifications dismantled by the Swedes during the war of 1656-1660, it continued Polish till 1772, when White Russia was united with the Russian empire. In early times Ryezhitza was a large and beautiful town.

RYLAND, WILLIAM WYNNE (1738-1783), engraver, was born in London in July 1738, the son of an engraver and copper-plate printer. He studied under Ravenet, and in Paris under Boucher and J. P. le Bas. After spending five years on the Continent he returned to England, and having engraved portraits of George III. and Lord Bute after Ramsay (a commission declined by Strange), and a portrait of Queen Charlotte and the Princess Royal after Francis Cotes, R.A., he was appointed engraver to the king. In 1766 he became a member of the Incorporated Society of Artists, and he exhibited with them and in the Royal Academy. In his later life Ryland abandoned line-engraving, and introduced "chalk-engraving," in which the line is composed of stippled dots, a method by means of which he attained great excellence, and in which he transcribed Mortimer's King John Signing Magna Charta, and copied the drawings of the old masters and the works

of Angelica Kauffman. He traded largely in prints, but in consequence of his extravagant habits his affairs became involved; he was convicted of forging bills upon the East India Company, and, after attempting to commit suicide, was executed at Tyburn on the 29th of August 1783. A short memoir of Ryland was published the year after his death.

RYMER, THOMAS (1641-1713), historiographer royal, was the younger son of Ralph Rymer, lord of the manor of Brafferton in Yorkshire, described by Clarendon as "possessed of a good estate" and executed for his share in the "Presbyterian rising" of 1663. Thomas was probably born at Yafforth Hall early in 1641, and was educated at a private school kept by Thomas Smelt, a noted Royalist, with whom Rymer was "a great favourite," and "well known for his great critical skill in human learning, especially in poetry and history."<sup>1</sup>

He was admitted as *pensionarius minor* at Sidney Sussex College, Cambridge, on April 29, 1658, but left the university without taking a degree. On May 2, 1666, he became a member of Gray's Inn, and was called to the bar on June 16, 1673. His first appearance in print was as translator of *Cicero's Prince* (1668), from the Latin treatise (1608) drawn up for Prince Henry. He also translated Rapin's *Reflections on Aristotle's Treatise of Poetic* (1674), and followed the principles there set forth in a tragedy in verse, licensed September 13, 1677, called *Edgar, or the English Monarch*, which was not, however, very successful. The printed editions of 1678, 1691, and 1693 belong to the same issue, with new title-pages. Rymer's views on the drama were again given to the world in the shape of a printed letter to Fleetwood Shephard, the friend of Prior, under the title of *The Tragedies of the Last Age Considered* (1678). To *Ovid's Epistles Translated by Several Hands* (1680), with preface by Dryden, "Penelope to Ulysses" was contributed by Rymer, who was also one of the "hands" who Englished the *Plutarch* of 1683-86. The life of Nicias fell to his share. He furnished a preface to Whitelocke's *Memorials of English Affairs* (1682), and wrote in 1681 *A General Draught and Prospect of the Government of Europe*, reprinted in 1689 and 1714 as *Of the Antiquity, Power, and Decay of Parliaments*, where, ignorant of his future dignity, the critic had the misfortune to observe, "You are not to expect truth from an historiographer royal." He contributed three pieces to the collection of *Poems to the Memory of Edmund Waller* (1688), afterwards reprinted in Dryden's *Miscellany Poems*, and is said to have written the Latin inscription on Waller's monument in Beaconsfield churchyard. He produced a congratulatory poem upon the arrival of Queen Mary in 1689. His next piece of authorship was to translate the sixth elegy of the third book of *Ovid's Tristia* for Dryden's *Miscellany Poems* (1692, p. 148). On the death of Thomas Shadwell in 1692 Rymer received the appointment of historiographer royal, at a yearly salary of £200. Immediately afterwards appeared his *Short View of Tragedy* (1693), criticizing Shakespeare and Ben Jonson, which produced *The Impartial Critick* (1693) of Dennis, the epigram of Dryden,<sup>2</sup> and the judgment of Macaulay that Rymer was "the worst critic that ever lived." Within eight months of his official appointment Rymer was directed (August 26, 1693) to carry

<sup>1</sup> See Hickee, *Memoirs of John Kettlewell*, 1718, pp. 10-14.

<sup>2</sup> "The corruption of a poet is the generation of a critic" (*Ded. of the Third Miscellany*, in *Works*, 1821, xii. p. 49), which is much more pointed than Beaconsfield's reference to critics as "men who have failed in literature and art" (*Lothair*, chap. xxxv.) or Balzac's sly hit at Mérimée in similar terms. The poet's remarks on the *Tragedies of the Last Age* have been reprinted in his *Works*, 1821, xv. pp. 383-96, and in Johnson's *Life of Dryden*. See also Dryden's *Works*, i. 377. vi. 251. xl. 60. xiii. 20.

out, that great national undertaking with which his name will always be honourably connected, and of which there is reason to believe that Lords Somers and Halifax were the original promoters. The *Codex Juris Gentium Diplomaticus* of Leibnitz was taken by the editor as the model of the *Fœdera*. The plan was to publish all records of alliances and other transactions in which England was concerned with foreign powers from 1101 to the time of publication, limiting the collection to original documents in the royal archives and the great national libraries. Unfortunately, this was not uniformly carried out, and the work contains some extracts from printed chronicles. From 1694 he corresponded with Leibnitz, by whom he was greatly influenced with respect to the plan and formation of the *Fœdera*. While collecting materials, Rymer unwisely engraved a spurious charter of King Malcolm, acknowledging that Scotland was held in homage from Edward the Confessor. When this came to be known, the Scottish antiquaries were extremely indignant. G. Redpath published a MS. on the independence of the Scottish crown, by Sir T. Craig, entitled *Scotland's Sovereignty Asserted* (1695), and the subject was referred to by Bishop Nicolson in his *Scottish Historical Library* (1702). This led Rymer to address three *Letters to the Bishop of Carlisle* (1702), explaining his action, and discussing other antiquarian matters. The first and second letters are usually found together; the third is extremely rare. Rymer had now been for some years working with great industry, but was constantly obliged to petition the crown for money to carry on the undertaking. Up to August 1698 he had expended £1253, and had only received £500 on account.

At last, on November 20, 1704, was issued the first folio volume of the *Fœdera, Conventiones, Litteræ et cujuscunque generis Acta Publica inter reges Angliæ et alios quosvis imperatores, reges, &c., ab a.d. 1101 ad nostra usque tempora habita aut tractata*. The publication proceeded with great rapidity, and fifteen volumes were brought out by Rymer in nine years. Two hundred and fifty copies were printed; but, as nearly all of them were presented to persons of distinction, the work soon became so scarce that it was priced by booksellers at one hundred guineas. A hundred and twenty sheets of the fifteenth volume and the copy for the remainder were burnt at a fire at William Bowyer's, the printer, on January 30, 1712-13. Rymer died shortly after the appearance of this volume, but he had prepared materials for carrying the work down to the end of the reign of James I. These were placed in the hands of Robert Sanderson, his assistant. For the greater part of his life Rymer derived his chief subsistence from a mortgage assigned to him by his father. His miscellaneous literary work could not have been very profitable. At one time he was reduced to offer his MSS. for a new edition for sale to the earl of Oxford. About 1703 his affairs became more settled, and he afterwards regularly received his salary as historiographer, besides an additional £200 a year as editor of the *Fœdera*. Twenty-five copies of each volume were also allotted to him. He died at Arundel Street, Strand, December 14, 1713, and was buried in the church of St Clement Danes. His will was dated July 10, 1713. Tonson issued an edition of *Rochester's Works* (1714), with a short preface by the late historiographer. Another posthumous publication was in a miscellaneous collection called *Curious Amusements*, by M. B. (1714), which included "some translations from Greek, Latin, and Italian poets, by T. Rymer." Some of his poetical pieces were also inserted in J. Nichols's *Select Collection* (1780-86, 8 vols.).

Two more volumes of the *Fœdera* were issued by Sanderson in 1715 and 1717, and the last three volumes (xviii., xix., and xx.) by

the same editor, but upon a slightly different plan, in 1726-35. The latter volumes were published by Tonson, all the former by Churchill. Under Rymer it was carried down to 1556, and continued by Sanderson to 1654. The rarity and importance of the work induced Tonson to obtain a licence for a second edition, and George Holmes, deputy keeper of the Tower records, was appointed editor. The new edition appeared between 1727 and 1735. The last three volumes are the same in both issues. There are some corrections, enumerated in a volume, *The Emendations in the new edition of Mr Rymer's Fœdera*, printed by Tonson in 1730, but in other respects the second is inferior to the first edition. A third edition, embodying Holmes's collation, was commenced at The Hague in 1737 and finished in 1745. It is in smaller type than the others, and is compressed within ten folio volumes. The arrangement is rather more convenient; there is some additional matter; the index is better; and on the whole it is to be preferred to either of the previous editions. When the volumes of the *Fœdera* first appeared they were analysed by Leclerc and Rapin in the *Bibliothèque Choisie et Bibliothèque Ancienne et Moderne*. Rapin's articles were collected together, and appended, under the title of *Abrogé Historique des actes publics de l'Angleterre*, to the Hague edition. A translation, called *Acta Regia*, was published by Stephen Whately, 1726-7, 4 vols. 8vo, reprinted both in 8vo and folio, the latter edition containing an analysis of the cancelled sheets, relating to the journals of the first Parliament of Charles I., of the 18th volume of the *Fœdera*.

In 1803 the Record Commissioners appointed Dr Adam Clarke to prepare a new and improved edition of the *Fœdera*. Six parts, large folio, edited by Clarke, Caley, and Holbrooke, were published between 1816 and 1830. Considerable additions were made, but the editing was performed in so unsatisfactory a manner that the publication was suspended in the middle of printing a seventh part. The latter portion, bringing the work down to 1383, was ultimately issued in 1869.

The wide learning and untiring labours of Rymer have received the warmest praise from historians. Sir T. D. Hardy styles the *Fœdera* "a work of which this nation has every reason to be proud, for with all its blemishes—and what work is faultless?—it has no rival in its class" (*Syllabus*, v. l. ii., xxxvi.), and Mr J. B. Mullinger calls it "a collection of the highest value and authority" (*Gardiner and Mullinger's Introduction to English History*, p. 224).

The best account of Rymer is to be found in the prefaces to Sir T. D. Hardy's *Syllabus*, 1869-86, 3 vols. 8vo. There is an unpublished life by Des Maizeaux (Brit. Mus. Add. MS. No. 4223), and a few memoranda in Bishop Kennet's collections (Lansd. MS. No. 987). In Gaultier's *Portraits, &c.*, 1819, l. 50, may be seen an engraving of Rymer, with a description of a satirical print. Rymer's two critical works on the drama are discussed by Sir T. N. Talfourd in the *Retrospective Review*, 1820, vol. i. p. 1-15.

Sir T. D. Hardy's *Syllabus* gives in English a condensed notice of each instrument in the several editions of the *Fœdera*, arranged in chronological order. The third volume contains a complete index of names and places, with a catalogue of the volumes of transcripts collected for the Record edition of the *Fœdera*. In 1869 the Record Office printed, for private distribution, Appendices A to E "to a report on the *Fœdera* intended to have been submitted by C. Purton Cooper to the late Commissioners of Public Records," 3 vols. 8vo (including accounts of MSS. in foreign archives relating to Great Britain, with facsimiles). In the British Museum is preserved (Add. MS. 24,699) a folio volume of reports and papers relating to the Record edition. Rymer left extensive materials for a new edition of the *Fœdera*, bound in 59 vols. folio, and embracing the period from 1115 to 1698. This was the collection offered to the earl of Oxford. It was purchased by the Treasury for £215 and is now in the British Museum (Add. MSS. Nos. 4573 to 4650, and 18,911). A catalogue and index may be consulted in the 17th volume of Tonson's edition of the *Fœdera*. The Public Record Office possesses a MS. volume, compiled by Robert Lemon about 1800, containing instruments in the Patent Rolls omitted by Rymer. In the same place may be seen a volume of reports, orders, &c., on the *Fœdera*, 1808-11. (H. R. T.)

RZHEFF, RSHEFF, RJEV, or RZHOFF, a town of European Russia at the head of a district in the Tver government, in 56° 16' N. lat. and 34° 21' E. long., 89 miles south-west of Tver, occupies the bluffs on both banks of the Volga (here 350 feet wide) near the confluence of the river Bazuza. It is the terminus of a branch line from the St Petersburg and Moscow Railway, has a population of 18,569 (1880; 19,660 in 1866), carries on a variety of manufactures—hemp-spinning, malting, brewing, ship-building, &c.—and is the centre of a great transit trade between the provinces of the lower Volga, Orel, Kaluga, and Smolensk, and the ports of St Petersburg and Riga.

Rzheff was already in existence in the 12th century, when it belonged to the principality of Smolensk and stood on the highway between Novgorod and Kieff. Under the rulers of Novgorod it became from 1225 a subordinate principality, and in the 15th century the two portions of the town were held by two independent princes, whose names are still preserved in the designations Knyaz Fedorovskii and Knyaz Dimitrievskii, given respectively to the left and the right bank of the Volga. In 1368 Rzheff was captured by Vladimir Andreevitch, and in 1375 it stood a three weeks' siege and had its suburb burned by the same prince. It was made a district town in 1775.